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ABSTRACT

This study proposes answers to questions of how and why computers can be used to catalog rare books. Divided into two parts, the first examines the nature of rare book cataloging needs and considers problems associated with machine-readable rare book cataloging. The question of how rare book cataloging differs from standard cataloging is analyzed and differing opinions about the extent of description catalogers should provide is discussed. The second part describes solutions to these problems in the form of six computer-assisted rare book cataloging projects: (1) the Independent Research Libraries Association (IRLA) Ad Hoc Committee on Standards for Rarebook Cataloging in Machine Readable Form; (2) the Eighteenth Century Short-Title Catalog (ESTC); (3) the North American Imprints Program (NAIP); (4) the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Antiquarian Books; (5) the Apple Pie Project; (6) and the Hand Printed Books Project. Appendices include a glossary of standard terms, a draft thesaurus of generic terms for older materials, and a draft standard for terms relating to illustrative and graphic processes. Twenty-five references are included. (Author/RAA)

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# COMPUTER-ASSISTED RARE BOOK CATALOGUING: PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study attempts to answer the question of why and how computers can be used to catalogue rare books, and is in two parts. Part I examines the nature of rare book cataloguing needs and examines problems associated with machine-readable rare book cataloguing. The question of how rare book cataloguing differs from standard cataloguing is analyzed, and differing opinions about the extent of the description rare book cataloguers should provide the user are discussed. Part II consists of solutions to these problems in the form of six computer-assisted rare book cataloguing projects: the Independent Research Libraries Association (IRLA) Ad Hoc Committee on Standards for Rare Book Cataloguing in Machine-Readable Form; the Eighteenth-Century Short-Title Catalogue (ESTC); the North American Imprints Program (NAIP); the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Antiquarian Books (ISBDA); the Apple Pie Project; and the Hand Printed Books Project.

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## INTRODUCTION

Many people have questioned the value of cataloguing rare books by computer. They have pointed out that inasmuch as each rare book is considered a unique and special entity, computers, which are most useful for handling repetitive tasks and uniform types of data, are not appropriate tools for the rare book cataloguer. They also object that the use of computers in rare book cataloguing will reduce cataloguing to the "lowest common denominator." Rare book libraries have traditionally maintained scholarly standards of excellence by resisting efforts to centralize operations and limit data included in their cataloguing. Should librarians in charge of special collections, these critics ask, relinquish that independence now?

In this study I will try to answer this question by assessing the nature of rare book cataloguing needs and by examining the ways in which systems technology can be--and has been--employed to catalogue rare books. Regarding the nature of rare book cataloguing needs, I will explain why and how rare book cataloguing differs from standard cataloguing, and, furthermore, I will analyze different opinions about the extent of the description rare book cataloguers should provide the user. This section will comprise Part I of the paper, and is entitled "Problems." As for the ways in which systems tech-

nology can be employed to catalogue rare books, I will analyze not only the theoretical matter of why and how computers can be used in the field of rare book cataloguing, but will also provide an overview of the current state-of-the-art. This section forms Part II and is called "Solutions." The projects I will examine in detail are the Independent Research Libraries Association (IRLA) Ad Hoc Committee Report on Standards for Rare Book Cataloguing in Machine-Readable Form; the Eighteenth-Century Short-Title Catalogue (E TC); the North American Imprints Program (NAIP); the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Antiquarian Books (ISBD[A]); the Apple Pie Project; and the Hand Printed Books Project.

My choice of these six projects for description and analysis deserves comment. They were selected as representative and/or illustrative of the problems and solutions involved in computer-assisted rare book cataloguing. The first four are important for their scope and influence; the last two for their personalized approaches to the problems of automated rare book cataloguing.

There has been one other development in the area of rare book cataloguing which I will mention only in passing. I refer to the just-published Bibliographic Description of Rare Books issued by the Library of Congress, commonly referred to as the LC Manual. Because the purpose of this work was to revise the first two chapters of AACR2 in light of ISBD(A), and because I describe ISBD(A) in some detail, I feel that to discuss the LC Manual in any depth would be highly repetitious.

## PART I

## PROBLEMS

Why is it necessary for rare book cataloguing records to differ from those used to describe modern books? In other words, what is the rationale for bibliographical cataloguing of rare books? Rare books are collected not only for the information they contain but also because they are, as Josiah Q. Bennett observes in his The Cataloguing Requirements of the Book Division of a Rare Book Library, "representatives of a cultural heritage and . . . a corpus of original sources for study and research."[1]

> It will be readily conceded that special subject libraries have special needs. It must be obvious that, for the greater number of its clients, the orientation of a music library will be towards text retrieval--locating the viola part of Opus 9, No. 2, and that sort of thing. It must also be obvious that the orientation of a chemistry library should be, for the majority of its clients, toward information retrieval--the location of the necessary data, the specific formula, the process required. Why, therefore, should it not be equally obvious that the orientation of a rare book library, after having fulfilled the primary goal of physical location, should be toward the identification of the books within it as rare books?--that is, in essence, toward locating the volumes in their bibliographical milieu? When we come to regard the rare book library as such, we find that . . . bibliographical data retrieval becomes essential and that this varies in many particulars from the requirements of text and information retrieval.[2]

The major reason for the existence of rare book libraries is to preserve certain printed materials as physical

objects, with interesting and important physical features or histories. Rare books are books which are preserved precisely because they contain physical features such as textual state, imprint, date, binding, or the like, which are peculiar to a particular copy of a book or to exactly similar copies--quite apart from educational value. It follows from this that the catalogue of such a library must reflect this purpose by providing access to that information about the physical form and history of these objects which is their reason for being preserved.

Andrew Osborn writes in his "Relation between Cataloguing Principles and Principles Applicable to Other Forms of Bibliographical Work" that rare book cataloguing is a "skillful blending of the general techniques of cataloguing and the insights of critical bibliography. Rare book cataloguing," he says, "is thus a borderline discipline; if at any time the cataloguing or the bibliographical insights are absent or weak, the results are bound to leave a great deal to be desired."[3]

But what, exactly, do the users of a rare book library need in the way of a cataloguing record? Is the card catalogue cum finding list adequate for the user of a rare book library? Bennett says: "If the library is a rare book library, it is organized as such on bibliographical principles. Therefore, it must be assumed that it will have clients interested in the bibliographical state of the books. These clients are not trying to locate any copy of the text, but copies with certain bibliographical characteristics."[4] In other words,

rare book libraries attract clients with historical interests. Such clients rely on catalogues in special collections to provide access by place of imprint, access by printer and/or publisher, and access by physical characteristics. Unless this information is available, the historian of the book and the historian of social and economic history will find his or her research tasks much more difficult than otherwise, if not, in some cases, impossible.

It is also true, however, that rare book libraries will serve clients for whom detailed cataloguing is not necessary, for instance, people who are solely interested in the content of a book and not some feature of the book as a physical object. It is equally true that fairly minimal cataloguing can often serve the needs of the scholar or researcher perfectly well, as the routine inclusion of the imprint date would serve the needs of someone trying to determine the presence of an early, scarce edition of a work in a particular collection. In short, the level and extent of the description of a rare book from the standpoint of the users' requirements is a variable matter: it entirely depends on the users' purpose in seeking the material.

Just as users' needs vary greatly, so opinions about the level of information the cataloguing record should include vary greatly. Paul S. Dunkin, for example, in his How to Catalog a Rare Book, argues for simplified, non-extensive cataloguing because he feels that the scholar and/or bibliographer will want, regardless of the cataloguing, to examine

the book personally and to arrive at his own conclusions about it. Thomas Tanselle, however, in "Descriptive Bibliography and Library Cataloguing," points out that this line of argument could lead to the cataloguer's doing nothing at all, and maintains that the real question is "not whether a user will uncritically accept the information but whether that information is relevant to the purposes of the entry and also falls within the level of detail established for it."[5]

By "relevant to the purposes of the entry," I take it Tanselle means relevant to the purpose of being entered in a catalogue, that purpose being to record the specific copies of a book that happen to be in a given collection. "The goal [of the catalogue]," Tanselle explains elsewhere, "is to be informative regarding substantive, not formal, matters."[6] By "level of detail established for it," I assume Tanselle is referring to the cataloguing code or rules which everyone agrees are necessary to promote, among other things, clarity, uniformity, and some degree of consistency and comparability in cataloguing records.

If users' needs are variable, are librarians' needs any less variable? Again, the answer to this question must perforce be related to the nature or the purpose of the inquiry being made. Generally, rare book librarians make greater demands on cataloguing records than do users, and these demands require more detailed information than users customarily demand or expect. Hence from the librarian's point of view, it is more cost-effective to include bibliographical informa-

tion in a rare book cataloguing record. The advantage of including such information in rare book cataloguing records is analyzed in detail by Bennett:

> On the credit side in cost matters it should be pointed out that when the information is available upon a catalogue card, certain savings are to be made in operations. If sufficient evidence as to state and condition are present, anybody checking dealers' catalogues or other lists for possible acquisitions . . . has the information at his fingertips without reference to the shelves. Equally, the answering of location inquiries and the retrieval of the proper volume for comparison inquiries will be performed more efficiently and at less cost.

Bennett goes on to say, and I agree with him:

> Basically, since rare books will attract inquiry and must sooner or later be properly described, it would appear to be a question of covering an initial expense or absorbing a running expense as it accrues. As exhibitions, or prestige catalogues, are prepared, the evident efficiency of first instance cataloguing should certainly make itself felt. And then, it is so much easier on the librarians. There is nothing so frustrating or embarrassing as having to admit that you don't really know just what it is that you <u>have</u> got around the place.[7]

Rare books require different and more extensive description than do other books, though before describing exactly what these differences are, I think it is important to note that Seymour Lubetzky's two well-known purposes of the catalogue are equally valid for the rare book catalogue. These are: (1) to facilitate the location of a particular publication, i.e., of a particular edition of a work, which is in the library; and (2) to relate and display together the editions which a library has of a given work and the works which it has of a given author.[8]

Rare books belonging to a single edition often vary

greatly from copy to copy, and the differences between the copies of one edition and another are frequently considerable as well. In order to distinguish a rare book as clearly as possible, the cataloguer must transcribe as much of the title as is necessary to differentiate it from similarly titled books. The cataloguer must also in his description preserve the nuances of the imprint and transcribe the imprint in full as it occurs, not only for the purpose of literal accuracy but for the purpose of avoiding conjecture. The cataloguer must, furthermore, indicate the extent of the work by providing information about two things: format (and/or collation of signatures) and pagination. The cataloguer must also provide annotations concerning matters such as missing leaves, the presence of cancels, paging errors that affect the final numbering in the pagination statement, and the like. The cataloguer must provide a structure to his or her file (whether manual or automated) so that the different editions and translations of, and commentaries on, the same work can be seen logically in relation to each other and in relation to other works by the same author. The cataloguer must devise a means by which information about a specific copy of a work may be distinguished from generalized information about the ideal copy of that work. Lastly, the cataloguer must record all of this information in a standard format, and MARC should be the format.[9]

The above criteria I consider to be essential to the rare book cataloguing record. There are several other criteria

which I consider to be desirable, but not absolutely and invariably crucial, to include in a rare book cataloguing record. First, it is useful to describe rare books in such a way that those exhibiting certain similar features may be identified through the catalogue. It is useful, that is, to be able to determine items with similar imprint information (e.g., printed or published by the same person, or in the same place, or in the same year); items of similar literary or physical genre (e.g., broadsides, almanacs); and items of similar physical feature (e.g., illustrated books or books with special types of bindings). Second, it is useful to describe an item in such a way as to identify any person associated with its production, whether the person is an author, a printer, an illustrator, or a former owner.[10]

It should be obvious that, owing to the nature of the production of the hand-printed book, it is possible for significant variations to occur from copy to copy in a single edition of a hand-printed book; thus the rare book cataloguer's task can be highly complicated. Hand-printed books often contain errors, correction of errors, and introductions of new errors as the forme-by-forme, sheet-by-sheet process transpires. Furthermore, these variations may extend to changes not related to errors, but to emendations, deletions, or other intentional modifications of a text or its package.

As for our original question, should librarians relinquish their independence to computers, the answer is that most rare book libraries will have no choice in the matter. Com-

puterized cataloguing systems are being imposed on all cataloguing operations in most institutions; remaining separate is no longer an option. This situation need not alarm the rare book cataloguer. The Library of Congress has recognized the need to address the special requirements of the rare book cataloguing record, and has responded by expanding the MARC format and by preparing a new manual for cataloguing rare books. Therefore, the question of whether or not computers should be used in dealing with rare books has little practical meaning, for the automated environment thus is now hospitable to the needs of rare books records. In addition, for the foreseeable future, computer-produced cataloguing will supplement and complement--but not replace--records already in existence.

Aside from the fact that all libraries are being automated, and rare book libraries are inevitably being automated too, there are many advantages for utilizing the computer to catalogue rare books. One of these advantages is that computer-stored cataloguing records will allow for the production of valuable bibliographical products such as a book catalogue of an entire library's collection or its holdings of a particular author's works. Another advantage is the ability to determine the location of an item with great speed. With computerized records, we can not only determine what other collections contain copies but how they were recorded or described by the librarians in those collections, and therefore the possibility for a form of shared-cataloguing becomes fore-

seeable. And related to this advantage is the further advantage that, as rare book cataloguing records are entered into major bibliographic data bases, retrospective bibliographical control will become more and more possible. In a sense one can say that we will be able to work from copy to collection rather than from collection to copy. A final advantage will be the consolidation of the many now-separate special files relating to imprint, binding, printer, and the like, which are at present a conspicuous feature of rare book libraries. With computerized records, a researcher will be able to search any separate category of information he or she wishes without having to examine separate files.

What changes, in terms of the user of the rare book library, will automation entail? As MARC records become the public records in rare book libraries, the user will no longer have to depend as heavily as he has in the past on an individual librarian's personal knowledge of a particular collection. Furthermore, the user will be able to feel confident that he need not ferret out special in-house files in each rare book library he uses. Automation, in short, will demystify the use of rare book libraries and their special files.

## PART II

## SOLUTIONS

### The Independent Research Libraries' Report

Of the major American projects that have addressed the special and difficult needs of the rare book cataloguer, the most notable is the Independent Research Libraries Association (IRLA) Ad Hoc Committee Report on Standards for Rare Book Cataloguing in Machine-Readable Form. This Committee was established in late 1978 with funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities, and it set itself initially two main tasks: firstly, to investigate the MARC format with a view to making specific changes so that the format could accommodate the requirements of rare book and special collections cataloguing, and secondly, to study in general terms the question of the adoption of AACR2 by such libraries.[11] However, in the course of the Committee's work, it became apparent that the time was ripe to focus on many of the broader issues of rare book cataloguing enumerated above. As a result, the Committee members did consider these issues and issued a report which I believe is the most thorough-going examination yet produced of the problems of the cataloguing of rare books and specialized materials in machine-readable form. Because its provisions are so important, I will describe them in some detail.

The IRLA Committee's Final Report, which is entitled Proposals for Establishing Standards for the Cataloguing of Rare Books and Specialized Research Materials in Machine-Readable Form, consists of fifteen proposals. The first six involve modification of the MARC format to include the following: (1) access by genre, (2) access by place of publication/printing (indirect), (3) access by place of publication/printing (direct), (4) copy-specific added entry fields, (5) access by publishing/physical aspects of an item, and (6) copy-specific description of the extent of an item.

Proposals Four through Six, as the Report points out, "address several specific areas in which the rare book and special collections community requires copy-specific information and access points."[12] And Proposal Seven takes up the question of developing a means by which these types of local and copy-specific information may be accommodated within the MARC format. So strongly does the Committee feel about this issue that they state:

> Because there is at present no suitable mechanism for such data in the MARC format or in the programs maintained by the bibliographic networks, it is the opinion of the Committee that it would be wise for rare book and special collections libraries to postpone joining a bibliographic network (or, if they have already joined, to postpone entering rare book cataloguing) until such a mechanism is developed and implemented by the networks.[13]

Proposal Eight concerns "relators and relator codes," that is to say, the need for the standardization of the vocabulary used to describe people who have performed a certain function or fulfilled a certain role with regard to a work.

In essence, the Committee recognizes in this proposal the necessity for the development of a thesaurus of a terminology to describe illustrators, binders, annotators, and the like. A draft list of the proposed terms was included in the Report, and it has since been expanded and modified. In 1980, the revised list received official endorsement from the Committee of the Rare Books and Manuscripts Section of ACRL (see Appendix I).

Proposal Nine concerns additions to the Expanded Character Set to accommodate detailed bibliographic description in MARC records. Specifically, the Committee asks for the addition of superscript a and b (to designate the columns of a page), superscript r and v (to designate recto and verso), Greek letters pi and chi (to stand for unsigned gatherings), and the vertical bar (to indicate line endings in title transcription). However, in the Report, the Committee indicates its willingness to accept certain prescribed substitutes for these characters if it is impossible to add them to the character set.

Proposal Ten concerns the need for a flexible filing override mechanism so that machine-produced or machine-based records can be organized in a way which is considered bibliographically correct. The Report summarizes the problem in the following way:

> Special collections, because of the narrower focus and greater depth of their holdings, frequently have several bibliographic records with the same author, uniform title, and date of publication (representing different editions, issues or states). Without a

> mechanism to influence filing in a way that is appropriate to the material, most filing programs will simply arrange the records randomly below the date level. This would not be useful for most rare book and special collections libraries.[14]

Proposal Eleven consists of a draft of a thesaurus of generic terms for older materials (e.g., almanac, book of hours, chapbook--see Appendix II) and a draft of a thesaurus for terms relating to illustration and graphic processes (e.g., woodcut, drypoint, mezzotint--see Appendix III).

Proposal Twelve recommends the use of a new field (tag 510) for the citation of bibliographical references, and the Committee urges that a standardized form of citation be made an access point in the MARC record. Such a field would prove a powerful retrieval mechanism of unprecedented value. Not only would such an access point be extremely helpful in terms of output lists, but it would also provide a means by which individuals interested in obtaining fuller bibliographic descriptions of works could do so.

Proposal Thirteen recommends a revision of the Library of Congress distributed bibliographic tapes so that "information pertaining to LC's copy of a work is clearly identified as being copy-specific data."[15] Such a reform is long overdue.

Proposal Fourteen addresses the problems of retrospective name authority which will result from the adoption of AACR2, and Proposal Fourteen also addresses the need for a "national or multi-institutional program for creating and distributing retrospective name authorities."[16] Such a system

would have the following features:

> (1) The capability for de-centralized input of AACR2 authorities, preferably in an online mode
> (2) A mechanism for establishing a provisional AACR2 form for use until such time as LC supplies its version of the heading
> (3) A mechanism for quality control and authentication outside of LC
> (4) A method for LC to consult and make use of authority work done by other libraries.[17]

The problem of assessing the impact of AACR2 on the descriptive cataloguing of rare books was originally to have been one of the primary tasks of the IRLA Committee. However, in June of 1979, the Library of Congress announced its intention of producing a manual for the cataloguing of older imprints which would expand AACR2 in light of the provisions of the new International Standard Bibliographic Description for Older Monographic Publications (Antiquarian) (ISBD[A]). In view of this development, the Committee decided to postpone consideration of the overall impact of AACR2 until it could study the LC manual.

The final proposal contained in the IRLA Committee's report is a recommendation that the Library of Congress manual for the cataloguing of older imprints be adopted for use by rare book and special collections libraries in lieu of the first two chapters of AACR2, which are recognized to be inadequate.

The importance of the IRLA Committee's work cannot be stressed enough. Not only did they thoroughly analyze the theoretical elements of the rare book cataloguing record, but they addressed the practical problems of implementation as

well. The next step is for rare book librarians to support IRLA's recommendations. As one commentator put it:

> Unified systems offer many advantages, but rare book department special files (imprint, chronological, or genre) may be lost in the machine-readable wash if appropriate rare books personnel are not sufficiently conversant with the possibilities and limitations of machine-readable cataloguing to be able to discuss the ways and means of creating and retaining machine-readable information for these files; and the trail-blazing work of the IRLA Ad Hoc Committee will need to be supported locally by informed rare book cataloguers who have mastered those basic principles of computer-assisted cataloguing which will enable them to talk intelligently about these matters with the appropriate automation and systems personnel of their main university cataloguing operations.[18]

## The Eighteenth-Century Short-Title Catalogue

Two specialized computer-assisted rare book cataloguing projects are currently underway in this country, both of them large-scale and both of them retrospective: The Eighteenth-Century Short-Title Catalogue (ESTC) and the North American Imprints Program (NAIP).

The stated purpose of the ESTC is to gain bibliographical control over all books and other letterpress printed materials which were published in the eighteenth century (1) in the English language, regardless of the country where publication occurred, and (2) in Great Britain, Ireland, or British North America, regardless of the language of the publication.

The idea of trying to provide bibliographic control over the eighteenth century is by no means a recent one, but the idea became a reality in 1976 when it was felt that the technology of machine-readable bibliographic records had reached a level of sophistication commensurate with the

formidable requirements of such a project. Indeed, the ESTC would never have been attempted were it not for computer technology.

The ESTC is based at the British Library in London, but an American branch of ESTC was formed in 1979. Not long ago, computer terminals were installed in the American group's center at Louisiana State University, and in 1981 the British Library's master file on magnetic tape will be loaded into the American bibliographic network, RLIN.

In terms of both its stated objective and the essential requirements of the rare book cataloguing record which we enumerated at the outset, the project must be considered successful. Three points about ESTC's approach bear particular emphasis: the handling of titles, the possibility of access by genre, and the structuring of the machine-readable file so that logical relationships are maintained between records.

Many people are under the impression that the ESTC provides only the briefest of titles, and this is certainly understandable given the project's name. However, the ESTC is not, in actuality, a short-title catalogue at all, but is rather a catalogue which includes fairly extensive title information, and thus fulfills the rare book cataloguer's requirement that the titles of rare books be transcribed in such a way that they may be clearly distinguished from similarly-titled books. It is true that the members of the project initially conceived their work in terms of a short-

title catalogue, but they soon discovered that this approach was unfeasible for several reasons--the main reason being that title abridgment would have made differentiation of similarly-titled works difficult, and thus would have inevitably produced ambiguities and confusions.

The second point that bears emphasis with regard to ESTC's approach concerns the development of an addition to the MARC format. This addition, in terms of the criteria I discussed earlier, falls into the category of "desirable but not essential." The addition is the introduction of a special field designed to give the user of the online catalogue access to genre information about materials in the catalogue. The user, that is, will be able to locate not only particular items, but will be able to locate as well classes of items such as almanacs and broadsides. It is worth noting that access by genre was the first recommended modification to the MARC format made by the IRLA committee, a circumstance which indicates how valuable genre access is felt to be by compilers and users of rare book catalogues.

A final point about ESTC concerns the ordering of the machine-readable file so that logical relationships are maintained between records. It will be recalled that such a structuring was deemed essential if the different editions and translations of, and commentaries on, the same work were to be seen in a logical relationship to one another. At present the ordering of the records must be determined manually when all of the entries have accumulated. The proper sequence of each

record is then encoded for machine manipulation. That this simple, if somewhat time-consuming, process results in an excellent catalogue is demonstrated by the originators' catalogue of the British Library's holdings of materials by and about Alexander Pope.[19]

## The North American Imprints Program

The other major retrospective rare book cataloguing project being pursued by automated methods is the North American Imprints Program which has been undertaken by the American Antiquarian Society and which was launched in 1980. According to the Director of the project, John B. Hench, the aim of the project is:

> [T]o create a machine-readable data base of highly detailed bibliographical information on pre-1801 North American imprints. This data base will supply cataloguing needs of the Society as well as other libraries, will serve a number of other scholarly and bibliographical purposes, and will provide the North American imprints records for integration into the Eighteenth-Century Short Title Catalogue.[20]

The first phase of the American Antiquarian Society's project began in mid-1980, and this phase involves the recataloguing in machine-readable form of all of the Society's 25,000 pre-1801 materials published in what are now the United States, Canada, and the British West Indies. These materials are housed in the Society's library in Worcester, Massachusetts, and it is expected that their cataloguing will be completed by late 1982 or early 1983. At this time, the second phase of the project is scheduled to commence, and this will consist of the cataloguing of all appropriate U.S. and

Canadian imprints not held at the American Antiquarian Society, but owned by other libraries.

The developers of NAIP feel that, although American imprints are under basic bibliographical control, there is a need for more detailed records than now exist in any single source. Therefore, although NAIP is using essentially the same type of MARC record that the ESTC is, they will use the expanded MARC format proposed by the IRLA Ad Hoc Committee. They will also utilize the expanded and amended version of the Library of Congress's newly devised manual for the cataloguing of rare or other special materials. In terms of the criteria I discussed at the beginning of this paper, the project's approach must be viewed as ideal.

The first phase of the NAIP has been funded by two major grants, one from the National Endowment for the Humanities Research Division, and the other from the Mellon Foundation. An additional grant from the Albert W. Rice Charitable Foundation of Worcester will make possible the purchase of an in-house minicomputer, other hardware, and the programming and processing services of Inforonics, Inc., of Littleton, Massachusetts. It is expected that after the data have been entered into the system, the data will be made available to both the ESTC and RLIN via MARC tapes.

It would be instructive at this point perhaps to compare the differences in approach of the ESTC and the NAIP by examining their very divergent methods of handling two important fields: the 300, or collation field, and the 500, or

note field. The collation statement used by the NAIP is designed to accommodate more bibliographic information than the collation statement used by the ESTC. (By "collation statement" both groups mean to refer to a pagination statement rather than a collation by signatures.) The NAIP cataloguers are instructed to include in their descriptions of pre-1801 materials all integral leaves, whether printed on one side, printed on two sides, or blank. Pagination statements in these descriptions thus inevitably add up to a total even number of pages, since every page has a mate on the other side of the leaf. As for collation statements (i.e., collation by signatures), NAIP cataloguers are to consider all preliminary or final integral blank pages or leaves as significant, and to give this information as a note, the full signature collation always being given in the 500 note field. In contrast, the ESTC cataloguers are instructed to include in their pagination statements a count of only those leaves which contain printed matter. Leaves which are completely blank are not to be counted, but their presence may be mentioned in a note. In ESTC descriptions, signature collations are completely omitted; they may not even be mentioned in a note.

In the ESTC's AACR-based formula, a Roman numbering sequence which leads directly into an Arabic sequence is regarded as continuous; NAIP does not regard such a sequence as continuous. Therefore, what is recorded by the NAIP as p. i-vi, 7-80 is recorded by the ESTC as simply 80 p. And in a book which contains six numbered pages in lower case Roman,

followed by a blank leaf and then two unnumbered pages, then the main sequence numbered in Arabic from 3 to 205, and five unnumbered pages at the end, the last two of which are blank, the NAIP statement would read: vi,[4],3-205,[5]; and the ESTC statement would read: vi,205,[3].

Concerning the differences between the ESTC and the NAIP in the 500 note field, the NAIP gives full signatures and the ESTC omits them, as I mentioned before. In addition, NAIP records both the presence and location of any advertisements contained in the volumes being catalogued, whereas the ESTC merely acknowledges their presence. In this field, both groups would note such things as the presence of cancels, chain lines that don't match the format of a volume, and paging errors that affect the final numbering in the collation statement.

## International Standard Bibliographic Description (Antiquarian)

Of the major international projects that have addressed the special and difficult needs of the rare book cataloguer, the first and foremost is the IFLA-sponsored International Standard Bibliographic Description for older books. This project dates back to 1973 when the ISBD Revision Meeting was held in Grenoble. It was not until 1975, however, that a working party was organized to undertake the production of such a description. Although the need for an ISBD(A) did not seem urgent in the early seventies, by the time the project had reached its final stages in the late seventies, its

importance was universally recognized by rare book and special collections librarians. Discussing this situation, in his introduction to the now-completed Description, Richard Christophers comments:

> In 1973 this lack of provision [for the description of older books] was not serious, because there was little demand for machine-processing of records for any but current items. Books of more antiquarian interest generally remained in separate catalogues which did not have to be manipulated by MARC and similar programs. However, particularly at the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Institut de Recherche d'Histoire des Textes in Paris, at the National Library of Scotland in Edinburgh, and at the Bodleain Library in Oxford, and from 1976 with the Eighteenth-Century Short-Title Catalogue centered at the British Library, the first steps were taken to enter older material on data-bases and to compile union catalogues, with the realization that the manipulation of data in records was something bibliographers of the hand-printed book could put to good use--perhaps even more advantageously than their colleagues handling current works.[21]

ISBD(A)--A for Ancien, Antique, Antiquarian, Alt, etc. --is intended as a means to fit rare book descriptions into a general catalogue while providing for other more specialized needs. In other words, it has been designed to allow for either very full bibliographical description through the use of options, or somewhat minimal records on the order of, say, the ESTC. This flexibility is intended to accommodate the differing needs and differing aims of different libraries and catalogues. Although the provision of such a wide margin of variation has been questioned by those who desire greater standardization, I believe this built-in flexibility is a great asset of the Description.

The ISBD(A) stresses three principal areas of concern

to rare book cataloguers: the title, the imprint, and the extent of the work, this last term--to repeat a point made earlier--referring to the physical description of books and consisting of information concerning pagination, illustrations, format and dimension, and accompanying materials. Regarding the question of title, the ISBD(A) rule for the transcription of the title reads as follows:

> The title proper is transcribed from the title-page or title-page substitute. It is transcribed exactly as to wording but not necessarily as to capitalization or punctuation. Exceptionally, a very lengthy title proper may be abridged in the middle or at the end. Omissions are indicated by marks of omission, i.e., three points (. . .).[22]

On the whole this rule well-suits the needs of rare book cataloguers. Especially useful is the provision for a title-page substitute and the cataloguer can therefore manage conveniently broadsides, incunabula bearing colophons, and similar materials. Some rare book cataloguers and bibliographers, it must be admitted, desire that the titles of older books be recorded fully and completely, and that the precise order of the title be recorded in such a way as to indicate not only its appearance on the page but also the original spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. However, Christophers points out--as has every cataloguer before him--that thorough quasi-facsimile transcription is highly problematical, in that many pre-twentieth-century books and pamphlets are not only lengthy but often lavish in their arrangement on the title page. Thus it seemed impractical to the designers of the ISBD(A) to attempt to provide for the total title information for which

the purist might wish.

As far as the imprint is concerned, it is hard to imagine that anyone will object to the manner in which ISBD(A) has handled the matter. Recognizing the ambiguities that frequently are attendant on the imprint of a particular book, Christophers and his colleagues have opted for exhaustive imprint description. "The inter-connection of printer, bookseller, and publisher," Christophers notes, "is so close and often so undefined that it may prove easier to transcribe imprints in full as they occur, not only for literal accuracy but to avoid subjective judgements."[23] Accordingly, the ISBD(A) rule regarding imprint requires that the names of publishers and/or printers be given "as they appear in the publication in the full orthographic forms and the grammatical case (with necessary preceding words and phrases) in which they are given."[24]

In describing the extent of the work, the ISBD(A) has adopted an approach which departs from that called for in the Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules in several important and interesting ways. The reason for these departures is that the AACR rules for describing the extent of the work were very badly formulated.[25] While ISBD(A) has not yet undergone a legitimate testing, their alterations in the extent of the work area appear at the moment to represent laudable improvements. For one thing, ISBD(A) requires, as AACR does not, information about format. This requirement is highly valuable to the rare book librarian because one can learn a great deal

about an early book simply by being able to determine if it is an octavo, a quarto, or a folio. For another thing, ISBD(A) provides the possibility as AACR does not of utilizing a "second level of description" to describe multi-volume publications. The first level in the two-level description is reserved for information which is common to an entire publication, while the second level contains information relating to the individual volumes or units. This feature is extremely useful because one does not derive a sufficient notion of the extent of a multi-volume work when it is simply--and imprecisely--described as "3 v."

Finally, ISBD(A) calls for, as does NAIP, a complete statement of all the pages of a book, whereas AACR allows for unfortunate omissions in this area.

I would like to discuss one last feature, a controversial option, which the ISBD(A) has included. I refer now to the so-called fingerprint, which is defined in the Description as "a group of characters taken from the text of a publication with the object of identifying it uniquely."[26] Champions of the fingerprint view it as a sort of substitute for an International Standard Book Number (ISBN) and, in fact in the guidelines for its use, it is stated:

> Since no standard numbering system appears in older publications, experiments have been conducted in recent years as to the feasibility of extracting information from each publication to make it uniquely identifiable. The fingerprint system has been considered as a substitute for the standard number for older publications.[27]

However, a footnote to the Description bears the information

that "[a] definitive formula for a fingerprint has yet to be determined by international agreement. Until such an agreement is made, the various forms of fingerprint will all be considered acceptable in this area."[28]

Controversy over the fingerprint has raged ever since it was first devised in connection with the London-Oxford-Cambridge Project LOC. Project LOC, which in many ways was a precursor of the ESTC, was a project begun in 1968 and completed in 1972, the aim of which was to explore the problems involved in compiling a machine-readable catalogue of pre-1801 books. During LOC's explorations, members of the project were considerably enthusiastic about the fingerprint, but ultimately the head of the project, John Jolliffe, was forced to admit that the fingerprint process was fraught with possibilities for error. Jolliffe and others have nevertheless continued to express hope that the process can one day be perfected, but critics of the fingerprint have taken a less sanguine view. Thomas Tanselle has pointed out that the fingerprint is crucially deficient in that it cannot by itself distinguish among impressions from a single setting of type or line-for-line resettings. Donald D. Eddy, in a paper given at a conference on eighteenth-century books held in San Francisco in 1975, condemned the fingerprint as "a completely artificial creation which is meaningless bibliographically . . . a new but useless technique."[29] And Robin Alston, after much deliberation, decided not to employ the fingerprint in the ESTC project, listing as his reasons the following points:

> Recording, checking, key-boarding, and proofreading them [fingerprints] would have added an unacceptable burden to the staff of ESTC and the financial resources available; to be effective they must be recorded with great precision according to a complex set of rules; they are not widely used as a bibliographical device; no international standard has yet been agreed; and, in cases where a text has been reset literatim, the fingerprint is unable to discriminate.[30]

David Foxon, however, utilized a personal form of the fingerprint with great success in his bibliography English Verse, 1701-1750. In the course of his work, Foxon recorded not only the standard bibliographical information which one could normally expect to find on a catalogue card, but also several other bits of information as well: watermark, the size of any uncut copies of a book, the position of a number of signature letters relative to the last line of the text above them, and press figures if they were present. One of the most impressive features of Foxon's admirable work is the wealth of information it includes about variant editions, and much of this information was deduced from his system of checking signature positions.

## The Apple Pie Project

Highly personalized computer-assisted rare book cataloguing projects are now taking place in Newcastle, England, and in Toronto, Canada. The first of these is project Apple Pie which its originator, C. J. Hunt, describes as follows:

> [It] has as its main objective the computer production of catalogues of two recently acquired special collections in the University [of Newcastle upon Tyne] Library: The Bainbrigg Library of Appleby Grammar School, Westmorland, and the Pybus Collection of historic medical books . . . . The Bainbrigg Library is a

> collection of some 1500 volumes assembled at the school by gift and purchase between the end of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth. The Pybus Collection, comprising some 2000 printed books together with many MSS, [sic] and drawings, was given to the University by Emeritus Professor F. C. Pybus in 1965. This [latter] is a magnificent library of early editions of important works in the history of medicine. Together the two collections total some 3500 volumes.[31]

Although a comparatively small and localized project, Hunt's Apple Pie Project is interesting for a number of reasons. First, Hunt and his team have tackled all of the technical problems associated with the creation of machine-readable records, including the design of the records themselves, and the creation of the computer programs necessary to manipulate those records. Second, Hunt has addressed a number of theoretical issues associated with the description of rare books, and has arrived at his own highly individual viewpoint.

Hunt says that in drawing up the punching conventions for the project, three basic problems were considered: (1) how to provide the kinds of records that were needed from the point of view of the descriptive cataloguer, (2) how to tag the information within the records in order to achieve effective sorting into a desired order, and (3) how to match or mesh the character sets of the available input/output devices with the demanding nature of the material being catalogued.[32] Anyone familiar with the history of the MARC format can appreciate the difficulty of resolving these problems.

In coming to terms with the type of record needed, Hunt concluded:

> The entries are intended to be for a full bibliographical catalogue. For each book there is a lengthy title transcript, an imprint, a collation and pagination, and a description of the binding if it is important, together with annotations and references. The machine-readable record is tagged to enable it to be approached by author, or by the names of others intellectually responsible for the book; by title; by imprint, country or place of publication, date or name of printer, bookseller or publisher; by language; by illustration processes present; by the material and decoration of the binding; by the country and date of the binding, and the name of the binder, if known; by the names of previous owners; and by the presence or absence of the book in standard reference works.[33]

Once the above fields were established, the next problem was to deal with their manipulation into the desired filing order. Since a strict alphabetical sequence would separate works which had a logical relation to one another, a classification system, or mapping system, as Hunt calls it, had to be imposed to give the file the proper structure. Fortunately, this structuring was accomplished fairly easily due to the small number of items in the collection.

The problem which the Apple Pie group could not resolve easily, nor satisfactorily, was the question of the character set. Rare books generally require a very extensive character set, but, regrettably, the Apple Pie group was restricted in the type of equipment available to them. This meant having to omit entirely diacriticals from the input, and having to add them by hand to the final printed catalogues.

While C. J. Hunt has devised many ingenious solutions to the problems of rare book cataloguing in machine-readable form, he has been sharply criticized for not utilizing the standard MARC format. Inasmuch as the use of MARC is one of

the criteria which we termed essential at the beginning of this paper, I share the consensus view that Apple Pie is deficient in this regard.

## The Hand-Printed Book Project

The personalized computer-assisted rare book cataloguing project taking place in Ontario is the Hand-Printed Book Project. This unconventional Canadian contribution to the developing art of machine-readable rare book cataloguing is a long-term undertaking to produce a machine-readable data base of pre-1800 printed books in Canada. William J. Cameron, who is Dean of the School of Library and Information Science at the University of Western Ontario and Director of the HPB Project, hopes not only to gain bibliographic control over all pre-1800 Canadian imprints, but also ultimately to utilize the information in the data base to produce a union catalogue of Canadian imprints and to provide other related bibliographical tools.

Dean Cameron takes a decidedly unorthodox position with regard to rare book cataloguing or, for that matter, any kind of traditional cataloguing. He finds most cataloguing codes, for both manual and machine systems, "permissive" and "interpretive." He prefers to emphasize what he calls the principle of identification as opposed to the principle of description which, he feels, wrongly informs most traditional cataloguing codes. To put the matter in another way, he believes the aim of cataloguing should be to identify a

bibliographically distinct item, and not to describe it. Moreover, he feels that the goal of identification can be achieved by recording only a minimal amount of bibliographical data. By limiting the amount of data recorded, and by reducing the number of subjective decisions which must normally be made by the cataloguer, Cameron anticipates the added benefits of increased speed, uniformity, and accuracy.

Cameron departs from conventional cataloguing in another way, but a way which is acceptable to rare book cataloguers. Individuals associated with the physical production of a book (the printers, publishers, binders) are given "as much emphasis" as the individuals associated with the intellectual production of a work (the authors, editors, translators).

In assessing the Hand-Printed Book Project in terms of our criteria for rare book cataloguing records, we must conclude that Cameron's project falls short in a number of respects. First, while Cameron feels that the goal of identification can be achieved by recording only a minimal amount of bibliographical data, the staff of the ESTC emphatically found this not to be the case. Second, by curtailing data about pagination, collation, and imprint, he further weakens his goal of identification. But more serious than the limiting of data is Cameron's overall approach to automation. By jumping too early into machine-assisted rare book cataloguing and by developing procedures which fail to take into account standards formulated for international bibliographic communication, Cameron has severely limited the usefulness of his work. One

can easily foresee the day when all of his records will have to be redone to bring them into conformity with international standards.

In Part I of this study I examined the nature of rare book cataloguing needs and some of the problems associated with machine-readable rare book cataloguing. In Part II, I looked at solutions to some of these problems in the form of six computer-assisted rare book cataloguing projects, four major and two minor. A consideration of these projects leads one to the inescapable conclusion that the last six years have been ones of great activity and ferment in the area of automated rare book cataloguing. One is also led by a consideration of these projects to an appreciation of their essential interrelatedness. A great deal of exchange of information took place between the developers of the various projects, and this exchange resulted in many respects in an informal but healthy coordination of the projects. ESTC was in a sense the trailblazer on which its sister project, the NAIP, could build. NAIP in turn recognized the need to coordinate its work with national developments, particularly those at the Library of Congress. LC in turn saw that it would need to address the provisions of ISBD(A) and AACR2.

Interrelatedness aside, it is also important to note that each of the projects fulfills a unique and special need. IRLA, for instance, developed its special access capacities

(codified in the three thesauri given in the Appendices) precisely because ISBD(A) did not provide a framework for searching for materials, but rather only offered rules for describing materials. NAIP, though in some ways a satellite project of ESTC, also is designed to supply a particular deficiency, the deficiency being the lack of a comprehensive machine-readable catalogue of North American imprints.

The use of automated methods in cataloguing is one of the most dramatic innovations in the recent history of librarianship. The use of computers has produced important advances in the cataloguing of modern books, and computer technology promises to bring advances no less dramatic to the cataloguing of rare books: certainly to the extent that rare books present the cataloguer with special problems, they also provide demonstrations of the special flexibilities and capabilities of automated methods of cataloguing.

NOTES

[1]Josiah Q. Bennett, The Cataloguing Requirements of the Rare Book Division of a Rare Book Library (Kent, Ohio: Kent State University Libraries, 1972), p. 3.

[2]Ibid., p. 6.

[3]Andrew Osborn, "Relation between Cataloguing Principles and Principles Applicable to Other Forms of Bibliographical Work," in Report of the International Conference on Cataloguing Principles, Paris, 1961 (London, 1963), pp. 126-27.

[4]Bennett, Cataloguing Requirements, p. 9.

[5]G. Thomas Tanselle, "Descriptive Bibliography and Library Cataloguing," in his Selected Studies in Bibliography (Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 1979), p. 77, and in Studies in Bibliography 30 (1977):41.

[6]Ibid., p. 68.

[7]Bennett, Cataloguing Requirements, p. 10.

[8]Seymour Lubetzky, Code of Cataloguing Rules: Author and Title Entry. An Unfinished Draft for a New Edition of Catalog Rules Prepared for the Catalog Revision Committee, with a Commentary by Paul Dunkin (Chicago: American Library Association, 1960), p. ix.

[9]These criteria are loosely based on points made by R. C. Alston and Richard Christophers in "Machine-Readable Cataloguing and Early Printed Books. Part I," International Cataloguing 8 (January/March 1979):11-12.

[10]These points are closely based on points made by Terry Belanger and Stephen Paul Davis in "Rare Book Cataloguing and Computers II," AB Bookman's Weekly 65 (14 January 1980):187.

[11]Ibid., p. 187.

[12]Proposals for Establishing Standards for the Cataloguing of Rare Books and Specialized Research Materials in Machine-readable Form: Final Report (Worcester, Mass.: Independent Research Libraries Association, 1979), p. 19.

[13]Ibid.

[14]Ibid., p. 27.

[15]Ibid., p. 39.

[16]Ibid., p. 43.

[17]Ibid.

[18]Belanger and Davis, "Rare Book Cataloguing II," p. 4.

[19]R. C. Alston and M. J. Jannetta, Bibliography, Machine-readable Cataloguing, and the ESTC (London: The British Library, 1978), at end (without pagination).

[20]John B. Hench, "North American Imprints Program," Factotum 9 (August 1980), p. 2.

[21]ISBD(A): International Standard Bibliographic Description for Older Monographic Publications (Antiquarian) (London: IFLA International Office for UBC, 1980), p. vii.

[22]ISBD(A), 1.1.2., p. 16.

[23]ISBD(A), p. viii.

[24]ISBD(A), 4.2.2.1, p. 33.

[25]For further discussion of this problem, see Tanselle, "Descriptive Bibliography and Library Cataloguing," in Selected Studies, pp. 63-66 and 82-89.

[26]ISBD(A), p. 3.

[27]ISBD(A), 8.1.1., p. 50.

[28]Ibid.

[29]Donald D. Eddy, "Eighteenth-Century Bibliography: Facts and Opinions," in Eighteenth Century English Books, Considered by Librarians and Booksellers, Bibliographers and Collectors. Proceedings of a Conference Held at San Francisco, June 25-28, 1975 (Chicago: Association of College and Research Libraries, 1976), p. 34.

[30]Alston and Jannetta, ESTC, p. 36.

[31]C. J. Hunt, "The Computer Production of Catalogues of Old Books," in Organization and Handling of Bibliographic Records by Computer, ed. Nigel S. M. Cox and Michael W. Grose (Newcastle-upon-Tyne: Oriel Press, 1967), p. 138.

[32]Ibid., p. 139.

[33]Ibid.

APPENDIX I

RELATOR TERMS FOR RARE BOOK,

MANUSCRIPT, AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS CATALOGUING

INDEPENDENT RESEARCH LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION AD HOC COMMITTEE REPORT ON

STANDARDS FOR RARE BOOK CATALOGUING IN MACHINE-READABLE FORM

ANNOTATOR
Use only for writer of manuscript annotations in a printed book.
ASSIGNEE
Use for person or organization to which a license for printing or publishing has been transferred. Cf. Licensee.
ASSOCIATED NAME
Use for a name associated with or found in a book which is not or cannot be determined to be that of a former owner or other designated relator.
BINDER
BINDING DESIGNER
x Designer of binding
BOOK DESIGNER
x Designer of book
BOOKJACKET DESIGNER
x Designer of bookjacket
BOOKPLATE DESIGNER
x Designer of bookplate
BOOKSELLER
CALLIGRAPHER
CENSOR
Use for censor, bowdlerizer, expurgator, etc., official or private.
COMPOSITOR
x Typesetter
COPYRIGHT HOLDER
CORRECTOR
Use for scriptorium official who corrected work of scribe.
Counterfeiter see FORGER
DEDICATEE
Use for person to whom book is dedicated (NOT recipient of a gift).
DEDICATOR
Use for signer of a dedication, dedicatory epistle, verses, etc.
Designer of binding see BINDING DESIGNER
Designer of book see BOOK DESIGNER
Designer of bookjacket see BOOKJACKET DESIGNER
Designer of bookplate see BOOKPLATE DESIGNER
Designer of type see TYPE DESIGNER
DONOR
Use for donor of book to present owner; donor to previous owner is designated as FORMER OWNER or ASSOCIATED NAME.
ENGRAVER
Use for person responsible for transfer of a design to wood, metal, etc. Libraries desiring more specific terms descriptive of the artistic medium involved may use the terms ETCHER and WOOD-ENGRAVER.
ETCHER
See note under engraver.
FORGER
x Counterfeiter

FORMER OWNER
ILL. [USTRATOR]
    AACR 2 form ill. required.
ILLUMINATOR
LICENSEE
    Use for original recipient of right to print or publish. Cf. Assignee.
LICENSOR
    Use for signer of license, imprimatur, etc.
LITHOGRAPHER
MEMORIAL
    Use for person in memory or honor of whom book is donated.
PAPERMAKER
PHOTOGRAPHER
PRINTER
PROOFREADER
    Use for corrector of printed matter only, for manuscripts use CORRECTOR.
PUBLISHER
RECIPIENT
    Use for person to whom letters are addressed.
SCRIBE
    Use for maker of pen-facsimiles of printed matter as well as for amanuensis and for writer of manuscripts proper.
TYPE DESIGNER
Typesetter see COMPOSITOR
TYPOGRAPHER
WOOD-ENGRAVER
    See note under ENGRAVER

APPENDIX II

DRAFT THESAURUS OF GENERIC TERMS FOR OLDER MATERIALS

INDEPENDENT RESEARCH LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION AD HOC COMMITTEE REPORT ON

STANDARDS FOR RARE BOOK CATALOGUING IN MACHINE-READABLE FORM

Advertisement
Almanac
Alphabet
Annals
Annual
Anthology
Army/navy list
  see Register (military)
Atlas
Autobiography
Ballad
Battledore book
  see Hornbook
Bibliography
Bill (legislative)
Bill of mortality
Biography
Blank form
  see Form (blank)
Block book
Book of hours
Bowdlerized book
Braille book
Breviary
Broadside
  x Handbill
Calendar
Calling card
Captivity
Carrier's address
Catalog
Catalog (auction)
Catalog (bookseller's)
Catalog (exhibition)
Catalog (publisher's)
Catalog (library)
Catalog (trade)
Catechism
Chapbook
Chronicle
Cipher(s)
  see Code(s)
Code(s)
  x Cipher(s)
Coloring book
Concordance
Conjuring book
Coranto
Courtesy book

(GENRE THESAURUS, cont.)

Curriculum
Dialogue
Diary
  x Journal
  xx Memoir
  see also Memoir
Dictionary
Dime novel
Directory
Dissertation (academic)
Division list (legislative)
Drama
  see Play(s)
Elegy
Emblem book
Ephemeris
Epithalamium
Erotica
Essay(s)
Eulogy
Exhibition (museum)
Facetiae
Facsimile
Festival book
Festschrift
Fiction
Flora
Forgery
Form (blank)
  x Blank form
Formulary
Gazetteer
Genealogy
Grammar
Greeting card
Guidebook
Handbill
  see Broadside
Handbook
Herbal
Hieroglyphic(s)
History
Hornbook
  x battledore book
Hymnal [texts only]
Index
Indulgence(s)
Instruction book/textbook
Juvenilia
Journal
  see Diary

(GENRE THESAURUS, cont.)

Journalism
see Reporting
Laws, statutes, etc.

Lectures
Letter(s)
Libretto
Liturgy and ritual
Masque
Mazarinade
Memoir
xx Diary
see also Diary
Miniature book
Miracle play
x mystery play
xx Passion play
see also Passion play
Missal
Monologue
Mystery play
see Miracle play
Newsletter
Novena
Oral history
Order in council
Oration(s)
Pantomime
Pasquinade
Passion play
xx miracle play
see also Miracle play
Pattern poetry
Penny poem
Petition
Pharmacopeia
Phrase book
Play(s)
x drama
Playbill
Poem(s)
Poll book
Prayer book
Prices current
Primer
Proclamation
Program
Prompt book
Prospectus
x subscription proposal
Rappresentazione

(GENRE THESAURUS, cont.)

Register (military)
   x Army/navy list
Regulation(s)
Reporting
   x Journalism
Roadbook
Satire
Scroll
Sermon
Session laws
Song(s) [texts only]
Song sheet [text only]
Standing orders
Subscription list
Subscription proposal
   see Prospectus
Thesaurus
Trade card
Travel book
Trial proceedings
Type specimen(s)
Vocabulary
Volvelle
Voyage(s)
Writing book
Yellow back

APPENDIX III

DRAFT STANDARD FOR TERMS RELATING TO ILLUSTRATION/GRAPHIC PROCESSES

INDEPENDENT RESEARCH LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION AS HOC COMMITTEE REPORT ON

STANDARDS FOR RARE BOOK CATALOGUING IN MACHINE-READABLE FORM

Many of the following processes could be done in color, which may be indicated by the addition of the word color to a term, e.g. "Lithograph, color." Some of the following terms already have "color" incorporated into them because of the importance of color in that process.

The addition of the word colored to any of the following denotes the addition of hand coloring.

These terms would be entered in the field recommended in Proposal #5 (which for the time being has been labelled 755, though the particular tag number may be changed if and when it is accepted into the MARC format).

Asterisks denote little-used processes with proprietary names.

I. Non-photographic processes

A. Relief
1. Relief cut
Woodcut
Metal cut
Chiaroscuro woodcut
2. Wood engraving
Chromoxylograph
*3. Graphotype
4. Relief etching
*Chemitype
5. Stereotype
6. Electrotype
*Glyphograph
*Kerograph
*Gypsograph
7. Linocut

B. Intaglio
1. Drypoint
2. Engraving
Steel engraving
Nature printing
3. Mezzotint
4. Etching
Soft-ground etching
Stipple engraving
Aquatint
Sugar aquatint

C. Planographic
1. Lithograph
Pen lithograph
Wash lithograph
Scratch lithograph
Transfer lithograph
Anastatic printing
2. Zincograph
3. Tinted lithograph
Lithotint
4. Chromolithograph
5. Monotype
6. Counterproof

D. Other
1. Silkscreen
2. Stencil
3. Natural illustration

II. Direct photographic processes

A. Photograph
B. Daguerrotype
C. Calotype
D. Carbon print
Autotype

III. Photomechanical printing processes

A. Intaglio
1. Photogalvanograph
2. Heliogravure
*Positive etching
3. Photomezzotint
4. Photogravure (screened or unscreened)
Rotogravure
*"Rembrandt" prints
Color gravure

B. Planographic
1. Collotype
*Heliotype
*Albertype
Ink photo
2. Photolithograph (unscreened)
Photozincograph
Photo-chromolithograph
3. Photo-offset lithograph (screened)
Color photo-offset lithograph

C. Relief
   1. Woodbury type
   2. Line block
      *Hyalograph
   3. Halftone
      Color halftone

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